

## THE BINARY GENETIC ALGORITHM

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Nature-Inspired Learning Algorithms (7CCSMBIM)

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## Aims

- To understand the process of the binary genetic algorithms
- To apply the binary genetic algorithm to optimisation problems.
- To know

## Objectives

- To study how the binary genetic algorithm works in detail
- To consider a number of applications and formulae

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## Problem Statement:

- Task: minimisation of a cost function

- Gradient information is not required

- Fun

## Difficulties

- non-convexity
- multi-modality
- non-smoothness
- discontinuity
- dimensionality

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## The Genetic Algorithm

- Genetic algorithm (GA) is a technique to solve problems which need optimisation.

- GA is

- GA is

- History of GA

- Evolutionary Computing evolved in the 1960's
- GA were proposed by John Holland in the middle of 1970's

## Darwin's Theory of Evolution <sup>1</sup>

- An offspring has many of the characteristics of its parents, which implies that the population is stable.
- The <sup>d</sup> from <https://eduassistpro.github.io>
- Only a small percentage of the offspring produced s
- Which of the offspring survive depends on their inhe

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<sup>1</sup> Sue Ellen Haupt, ValliappaLakshmanan, CarenMarzban, AntonelloPasini, and John K. Williams. Environmental Science Models and Artificial Intelligence. Artificial Intelligence Methods in the Environmental Sciences. Springer Science (3-14, 103-126), 2009.



## The Binary Genetic Algorithm

- Biological Metaphor - Natural Selection

- Genetics and Evolution - gene, chromosome, allele, genotype, phenotype,

- Co

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mutation, offspring and convergence, ..

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## Advantages:

- Optimise with continuous or discrete variables.

- Derivative information is not required.

- Able

- Opti

- Is less likely trapped in local optimum.

- Tends to search for global optimum.

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- $N_{var}$  : number of decision variables of the chromosome

- $N_{bit}$  : total number of bits of the chromosome

- $N_{pop}$  : population size

- $N_{pop}$

- $X_{rate}$

- $N_{kee}$

- $N_{pop} - N_{keep}$  : number of chromosomes to be discarded

- $x_{lo}$  : lower bound of variable  $x$

- $x_{hi}$  : upper bound of variable  $x$

- $P_n$  : probability of the  $n^{th}$  chromosome in the mating pool of  $N_{keep}$  to be chosen

- $c_n$  : cost of the  $n^{th}$  chromosome

- $C_n$  : normalised cost of the  $n^{th}$  chromosome

- $\mu$  : mutation rate (or probability of mutation)

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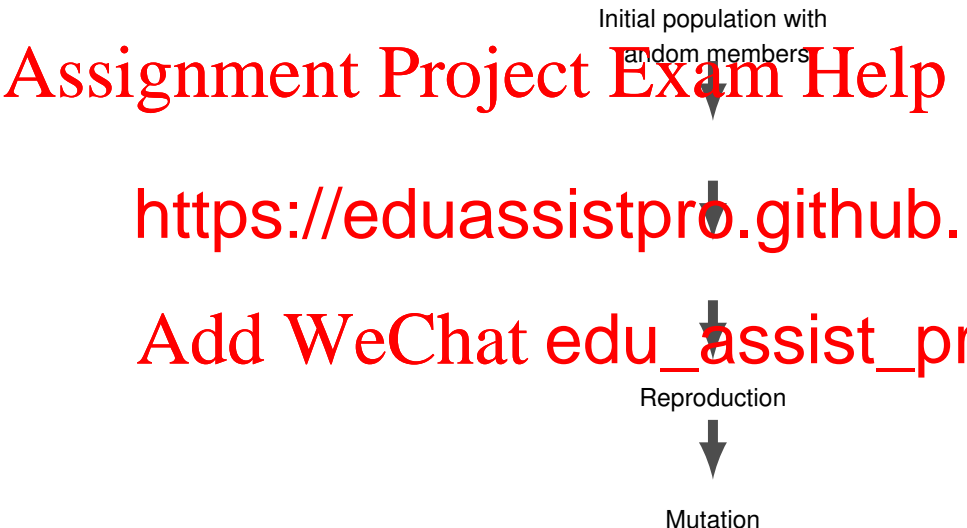
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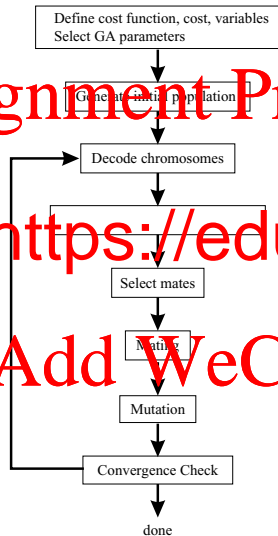
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# The Binary Genetic Algorithm



Initial population with  
random members

Reproduction

Mutation

Figure 1: Flowchart of a binary genetic algorithm.

# Binary Encoding and Decoding

## Binary number conversion:

Example: Convert 25.3125 to binary

The integer part: 25

The fractional part: 0.3125

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$$6/2 \rightarrow 0$$

$$3/2 \rightarrow 1$$

$$1/2 \rightarrow 1$$

$$25.3125_{10} = 11001.0101_2$$

## Binary to Decimal:

$$(1 \times 2^4 + 1 \times 2^3 + 0 \times 2^2 + 0 \times 2^1 + 1 \times 2^0) \cdot (0 \times 2^{-1} + 1 \times 2^{-2} + 0 \times 2^{-3} + 1 \times 2^{-4})$$

# Binary Encoding and Decoding

Given a number  $x \in [x_{lo}, x_{hi}]$ , how many bits ( $m$ ) are required to achieve precision of  $\epsilon$  decimal places?

**Example**

$$\frac{100-25}{10^{-2}} \leq \quad - \Rightarrow \quad \leq \Rightarrow = \quad .$$

$$\begin{aligned} 00000000000000 &\rightarrow 25 + 0 \times \frac{100-25}{2^{13}-1} = 25 \\ 00000000000001 &\rightarrow 25 + 1 \times \frac{100-25}{2^{13}-1} = 25.0092 \\ 00000000000010 &\rightarrow 25 + 2 \times \frac{100-25}{2^{13}-1} = 25.0183 \end{aligned}$$

**Decoding:**  $x = x_{lo} + decimal(1001 \dots 001_2) \frac{x_{hi}-x_{lo}}{2^m-1}$



# Decision Variables and Cost Function

- The optimisation/decision variables are represented by *chromosome*.

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$$chromosome = [p_1, p_2, \dots, p_{N_{var}}]$$

- Eac

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- The cost is evaluated by a cost (fitness) function.

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$$cost = f(chromosome)$$

- Genotype: The bit string representation of the chromosome
- Phenotype: The decision variables. The genotype can be mapped to phenotype through decoding or vice versa through encoding.
- Allele: the value of a single bit in the chromosome

# Decision Variables and Cost Function

**Example:** Consider an optimisation problem with decision variables of  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_{N_{var}}$ .

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- Phenotype:  $[p_1, p_2, \dots, p_{N_{var}}]$

- Wh

Chr

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$\underbrace{\hspace{1.5cm}}_{gene_1(p_1)} \underbrace{\hspace{1.5cm}}_{gene_2(p_2)} \quad \underline{\hspace{1cm}} \quad \underline{\hspace{1cm}}$

Genotype: 1100110011 011110000 ...

Allele: the allele of the first bit from the left is '1'.

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- The GA starts with a group of chromosomes known as the population.

- The population has  $N_{pop}$ .

- A population represented by a  $N \times N$  matrix filled with random 0s and 1s.

- **Pur**

evolved to improve their quality in each generation

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**Example:** A cost function:  $cost = f(x, y)$  with 7 bits in each gene.

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chromosome =  $\begin{array}{c} \underline{1100011} \quad \underline{0011001} \\ x \qquad \qquad y \end{array}$

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	Cost
11100101100100	11872
00110010001100	
00101111001000	
11001111111011	
01000101111011	-12097
11101100000001	-12588
01001101110011	-11860

Table 1: Example initial population

- **Two approaches:**  $X_{rate}$  and Thresholding.

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- **Purposes:** Determine who should survive and who should die. The stronger ones will survive and the weaker ones will die, i.e., “Survival of the fittest” from

Dar

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## Natural Selection: $X_{rate}$

### Natural Selection using $X_{rate}$

- Survival of the fittest. Only the best are selected to survive.

- Natural selection occurs each generation or iteration of the algorithm.

- The s

- The n

$$N_{keep} = X_{rate} N_{pop}.$$

- The **top**  $N_{keep}$  will be kept in each generation.

- The **bottom**  $N_{pop} - N_{keep}$  chromosomes w  
new offspring.

# Natural Selection: $X_{rate}$

**Example:**  $N_{pop} = 8$  and  $X_{rate} = 50\%$ .  $N_{keep} = X_{rate}N_{pop} = 0.5 \times 8 = 4$ .

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Chromosome	Cost
00110010001100	13477

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01000101111011

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11100101100100

01001101110011

11001111111011

**Table 2:** Ranked population. The upper four will be kept and the lower four will be discarded and replaced.

# Natural Selection: Thresholding

## Natural Selection using Thresholding:

• All chromosomes that have a cost **lower** than a pre-defined threshold survive.

- Chromosomes with a cost **higher** than the threshold will be discarded and replaced.

- If not

- The threshold can be changed in each generation.

## Advantage over $X_{rate}$ natural selection:

- Less computationally expensive as population d



## Selection:

- Four approaches

- 1) Pairing from top to bottom

- 2)

- 3)

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- 3.2) Cost weighting

- 4) Tournament selection

- **Purposes:** Determine who should reproduce o

## Selection

**Selection:** Two chromosomes are selected from the mating pool of  $N_{Keep}$  chromosomes to produce two new offspring. Selection will take place until  $N_{pop} - N_{keep}$  offspring are born to replace the discarded chromosomes.

### 1) Pair

chromosomes  
mated for

*Property:* Simple and easy to implement.

### 2) Random pairing: A uniform random number $g$ is generated for each chromosome to select the best chromosomes.

*Property:* All chromosomes (in the mating pool of  $N_{Keep}$ ) have chance to mate. Introduce diversity to the population resulting in higher chance of producing offspring of quality.

3) **Weighted Random Paring (roulette wheel weighting):** The probabilities

assigned to the chromosomes in the mating pool are inversely proportional to their cost.

- **Pro**

mating

of mating.

- **Two techniques:** Rank weighting and cost we

### 3.1) Rank weighting (roulette wheel weighting):

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where

$N_{keep}$  to be

choose

Example

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$n$	Chromosome	Cost		
1	00110010001100	—	0.3	0.7
2	11101100000001	—12363	0.2	0.9
3	00101111001000	—12359	0.1	1.0
4	00101111000110			

Table 3: Probability table for rank weighting.

### 3.1) Rank weighting (roulette wheel weighting):

Properties:

- It is problem independent.

- 

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## Selection

### 3.2) Cost weighting (roulette wheel weighting):

Normalised Cost:  $C_n = \frac{c_n - c_{N_{keep-1}}}{C_n}$

Probability:  $\frac{C_n}{\sum C_n}$

#### Example

$n$	Chromosome	$C_n = c_n - c_{N_k}$	$P_n$
1	00110010001100	-13477 + 12	
2	11101100000001	-12588 + 12	
3	00101111001000	-12363 + 12097 = -266	0.111 0.891
4	00101111000110	-12359 + 12097 = -262	0.109 1.000

Table 4: Probability table for cost weighting.

## 3.2) Cost weighting (roulette wheel weighting):

### Properties:

- It is cost function dependent.

- 

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approximately the same cost.

- The probabilities have to be calculated each generation, which is computationally expensive.

**Remark for Normalisation:** Different scaling functions can be used. For example, a more general form of scaling function could be

where  $a$

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In our example, we choose  $a = 1$  and  $b = -c$

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$$C_n = c_n - c_{N_{keep}+1}$$



## 4) Tournament selection:

- Randomly pick a small subset of chromosomes (two or three) from the mating pool in the  $N_{keep}$ , and the chromosome with the lowest cost in the subset

Pro

- It works best for larger population sizes because s time-consuming for large populations  $\Rightarrow$
- Chromosomes of good quality (with lower cost) h chosen.

## Crossover:

- Two approaches

- 1) Single-point crossover

- 2)

- 3)

- Pur

process (by exchanging information).

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# Crossover

## 1) Single-point crossover:

**Step 1:** A crossover point is randomly selected between the first and last bits of the parents' chromosomes.

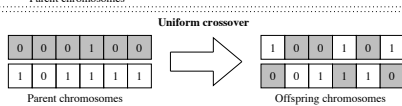
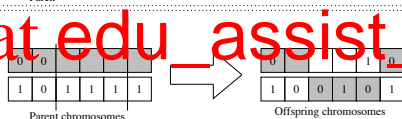
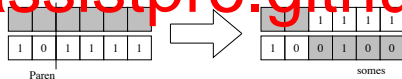
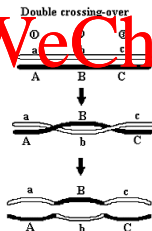
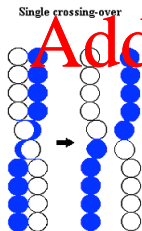
**Step 2:** Generate two offspring by swapping the chromosomes from the crossover point between two parents.

**Step 3:** Replace any two chromosomes to be discarded in the pool of  $N_{pop} - N_{keep}$  in the population.

**Step 4:**

ced.

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## 1) Single-point crossover:

Example:  $l_k \otimes l_{k+1}$ 

Chromosome	Family	Binary String
------------	--------	---------------

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6	<i>offspring<sub>2</sub></i>	
3	<i>ma(2)</i>	
4	<i>pa(2)</i>	
7	<i>offspring<sub>3</sub></i>	00101111000110
8	<i>offspring<sub>4</sub></i>	00101111001000

Table 5: Pairing and mating process of single-point crossover.

- 2) **Double-point crossover:** The segments in between two randomly generated

crossover points are swapped between parents.

- 3) **Uniform crossover:** Bits are randomly chosen for swapping between parents.

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# Mutations

## Mutations:

- **Purposes:** Random mutations alter a certain percentage of the bits in the list of chromosomes. It allows the GA to explore a cost surface by introducing new information.

## Mutation pr

Step 1: Choos

Step 2: Deter

$$\#mutation = \mu(N_{pop} - 1)N_{bits}$$

Step 3: Flip the chosen bits.

Remark: If elitism is NOT implemented,

$$\#mutation = \mu N_{pop} N_{bits}.$$

# Mutations

- **Mutations:**

Example:  $\mu_{keep} = 0.2$ ,  $\mu = 0.2$ ,  $\#mutation = 0.2 \times (8 - 1) \times 4 = 19.6 \approx 20$

Population after Mating	Population after Mutations	New Cost
		477
		586
		415
00101111000110	0000101	
00101100000001	00101110	
11101111001000	1111011	
00101111000110	00100111101000	-12716
00101111001000	00110111001000	-12103

Table 6: Mutating the population.

Chromosome	Cost
000110100011	-13482
00110010001100	-13477

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00101111010000

11110111010010

00110111001000

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Table 7: New ranked population at the start of the second generation.



# Convergence

## Stopping Criteria:

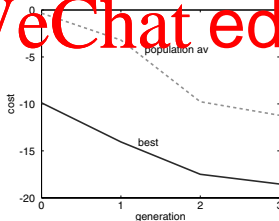
- Whether an acceptance solution is reached.

- A set number of iterations is exceeded.

- No c

- No c

- Population statistics on mean and minimum cost.



**Question:** Find the maximum percentage of the possible solution being searched after 3 generations

**Total num**

**maximu**

$$\underbrace{8}_{\text{initial population}} + \underbrace{7}_{\text{max. cost evaluations per generation (elitism is implemented)}} \times \underbrace{1}_{\text{gene}}$$

$$\frac{29}{128 \times 128} \times 100 = 0.18\% \text{ of the solution space has been searched.}$$

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# Random-Based Optimisation: Performance Evaluation

## Statistics

- mean, standard deviation, the worst and the best of the cost of multiple runs

## Converge

## Benchmark

- Functions of different properties

## Function 1:

$$f_1(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2, -5.12 \leq x_i \leq 5.12$$

minimum:  $\mathbf{x}^* = 0, f_1(\mathbf{x}^*) = 0$

## Function 2:

$$f_2(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^n \left( 100(x_{i+1} - x_i^2)^2 + (x_i - 1)^2 \right), -2.048 \leq x_i \leq 2.048$$

minimum:

Function

$$f_3(\mathbf{x}) = 6n + \sum_{i=1}^n \text{floor}(x_i), -$$

minimum:  $x_i^* \in [3, 5.12], f_3(\mathbf{x}^*) = 0$

# Random-Based Optimisation: Performance Evaluation

## Function 4:

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$$f_4(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^n ix_i^4 + \text{Gauss}(0, 1), -1.28 \leq x_i \leq 1.28$$

minimum:

**Function**

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$$f_5(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{k} + \sum_{j=1}^{25} \frac{1}{j + \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - a_{ij})^2}$$

maximum:  $x_i^* = -32, f_5(\mathbf{x}^*) \approx 1$  with  $k = 500$

$$a_{ij} = \begin{bmatrix} -32 & -16 & 0 & 16 & 32 & -32 & -16 & 0 & 16 & 32 \\ 32 & 32 & 32 & 32 & 32 & -16 & -16 & -16 & -16 & -16 \\ -32 & 16 & 0 & 16 & 32 & -32 & -16 & 0 & 16 & 32 & -32 & -16 & 0 & 16 & 32 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 16 & 16 & 16 & 16 & 32 & 32 & 32 & 32 \end{bmatrix}$$

**Function 6:**

$$f_6(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i^2 - 10 \cos(2\pi x_i) + 10), -5.12 \leq x_i \leq 5.12$$

minimum:

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# Binary GA example by hand

**Example:** Consider a function  $f(x, y, z) = x - 2xy + 3z$  to be minimised, where

$2 \leq x, y, z \leq 5$ . Each variable is represented by 2 bits.

Chromosome:  $[x, y, z]$

After encoding

Encoding\

Decoding:  $x = x_{lo} + decimal(1001) \cdot \frac{5-2}{2^2-1}$

With  $x_{lo} = 2$ ,  $x_{hi} = 5$  and  $m = 2$ ,

$$00 \rightarrow 2 + decimal(00) \times \frac{5-2}{2^2-1} = 2$$

$$01 \rightarrow 2 + decimal(01) \times \frac{5-2}{2^2-1} = 3$$

$$10 \rightarrow 2 + decimal(10) \times \frac{5-2}{2^2-1} = 4$$

$$11 \rightarrow 2 + decimal(11) \times \frac{5-2}{2^2-1} = 5$$

# Binary GA example by hand

**Example:** Consider a function  $f(x, y, z) = x - 2xy + 3z$  to be minimised, where

$0 \leq x, y, z \leq 5$ . Each variable is represented by 2 bits

**Step 1: Pop**

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1	101110	4, 5, 4	
2	000011	2, 2, 5	
3	001100	2, 5, 2	
4	110100	5, 3, 2	-19

# Binary GA example by hand

**Example:** Consider a function  $f(x, y, z) = x - 2xy + 3z$  to be minimised, where

$0 \leq x, y, z \leq 5$ . Each variable is represented by 2 bits

Step 2: Ran

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1 101110

4, 5, 4

2 10100

5, 3, 2

3 001100

2, 5, 2

4 000011

2, 2, 5

9

# Binary GA example by hand

**Example:** Consider a function  $f(x, y, z) = x - 2xy + 3z$  to be minimised, where  $2 \leq x, y, z \leq 5$ . Each variable is represented by 2 bits.

**Step 3: Selection** with cost weighting (roulette wheel weighting)

$n$	Chro		$P_n$
1	101110	4, 5, 4	
2	110100	5, 3, 2	-19 -19 -
3	001100	2, 5, 2	-12 -12 -
4	000011	2, 2, 5	9

$$P_n = \left| \frac{C_n}{\sum_{m=1}^{N_{keep}} C_m} \right| = \left| \frac{C_n}{\sum_{m=1}^3 C_m} \right| = \left| \frac{C_n}{-33-28-21} \right| = \left| \frac{C_n}{-82} \right|$$

$$P_1 = \left| \frac{-33}{-82} \right|, P_2 = \left| \frac{-28}{-82} \right|; P_3 = \left| \frac{-21}{-82} \right|$$

- Generate two random numbers: 0.9649, 0.2785

What happen if the same chromosome is chosen?

## Binary GA example by hand

**Example:** Consider a function  $f(x, y, z) = x - 2xy + 3z$  to be minimised, where  $0 \leq x, y, z \leq 5$ . Each variable is represented by 2 bits

### Step 4: Cro

$p_3$ : 0011

$p_1$ : 101110

- Generate randomly a crossover point: 2

$offspring_1$ : 00110

$offspring_2$ : 101100

# Binary GA example by hand

**Example:** Consider a function  $f(x, y, z) = x - 2xy + 3z$  to be minimised, where

$0 \leq x, y, z \leq 5$ . Each variable is represented by 2 bits

## Step 5: Mut

Ranked p

#mutatio

row = [2 2 3 4]; column = [4 5 2 5].

<i>n</i>	Chromosome	Chromosome after mutation	Decoded	fit
1	101110	101110	4, 5, 4	− 4
2	110100	110010	5, 2, 4	−3
3	001100	011100	3, 5, 2	−21
4	001110	001100	2, 5, 2	−12

# Binary GA example by hand

**Example:** Consider a function  $f(x, y, z) = x - 2xy + 3z$  to be minimised, where  $0 \leq x, y, z \leq 5$ . Each variable is represented by 2 bits

- The 1<sup>st</sup>

- Rank

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	Chromosome	Decoded , ,	Cost
1	101110	4, 5, 4	
2	0011100	3, 5, 2	
3	001100	2, 5, 2	
4	110010	5, 2, 4	-3

- Repeat steps 1 to 5 until stopping criteria have been met.

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# Why do GAs work? Schema Theorem

- **Binary** genetic algorithms are considered.

Schema Theorem (Michalewicz, 1992)

“Short, low-order, above-average schemata receive exponentially increasing trials in subsequent generations.”

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# Why do GAs work? Schema Theorem

- **A scheme:** a template representing a subset of binary strings using symbols

0, 1, and \* (don't care symbol).

## Example:

Schema

Schema

Schema \*\*\*\*\* matches 2 strings: {00000, 00001, , 11110, 11111}.

Schema 11100 matches 1 string {11100}.

String 11100 is matched by  $2^5$  schemata: {11100, 1110\*, 1110\*, 1110\*, 1110\*, 1110\*, 1110\*, 1110\*}.

\*\*\*\*\*}.

# Why do GAs work? Schema Theorem

## Schema properties:

1. **Order** of the schema  $S$  (denoted by  $o(S)$ ): the number of fixed positions ('0' and '1' positions), i.e., the length of the template minus the number of don't care
2. **Defin** <https://eduassistpro.github.io> between the first and the last fixed positions.

## Example:

$$S_1 = ***001*110 \Rightarrow o(S_1) = 6, \delta(S_1) = 1$$

$$S_2 = ****00**0* \Rightarrow o(S_2) = 3, \delta(S_2) = 9 - 5 = 4$$

$$S_3 = 11101**001 \Rightarrow o(S_3) = 8, \delta(S_3) = 10 - 1 = 9$$

# Why do GAs work? Schema Theorem

## Binary GAs:

1. select  $P(t)$  based on  $P(t-1)$
2. recombine  $P(t)$
3. eval
4.  $t \leftarrow t+1$

## Binary GA

- $N_{keep} = 0$ .
- Selection: roulette wheel weighting, cost  $w$ .
- Crossover: single-point crossover (crossover points are allowed any point in between the first and last bits).
- Mutation: uniform mutation (with the probability of mutation  $p_m$  for each bit).
- Elitism is not implemented.

# Why do GAs work? Schema Theorem

$\xi(S, t)$ : the number of strings in the population at generation  $t$  matched by a schema  $S$ .

**Example:** Consider the following population (costs are normalised and thus of all negative):

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$$v_3 = 110111 \quad f$$

$$v_4 = 000110 \quad f$$

$$v_5 = 110001 \quad f(v_5) = -8$$

$$v_6 = 110011 \quad f(v_6) = -3$$

$$S_1 = **01**, \quad \xi(S_1, t) = 3$$

# Why do GAs work? Schema Theorem

$f(S, t)$ : average cost of all strings in the population matched by the schema  $S$ .

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Assuming that there are  $p$  strings  $\{u_1, \dots, u_p\}$  in the population matched by a schema  $S$

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**Example:**

$S_1 = \star\star 01\star\star$  is matched by  $\{v_1, v_3, v_4\} = \{$

$$f(S_1, t) = \frac{f(v_1) + f(v_3) + f(v_4)}{3} = \frac{15 + 6 + 1}{3} = 7.3$$

# Why do GAs work? Schema Theorem

**Objective:** Investigate the probability of survival of all schemata  $S$  ( $S_1, \dots, S_{N_{bits}}$ ) in the GA process (selection, crossover, mutation).

**Selection:** The probability of selecting the string  $v_i$ :

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where  $F(t) = \sum_{j=1} f(v_j)$ .

1. The number of strings matched by schema  $S$
2. The average probability of a string matched by schema  $S$  to be selected:

$$\frac{f(S,t)}{F(t)}.$$

3. The number of strings to be selected for recombination:  $N_{pop}$  ( $N_{keep} = 0$ ).

# Why do GAs work? Schema Theorem

$\xi(S, t+1)$ : the number of strings matched by  $S$  after the selection process.

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where  $\bar{F}(t)$

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$$\begin{aligned}\xi(S, t+1) &= \xi(S, t) \frac{f(S, t)}{\bar{F}(t)} \\ &= \xi(S, t) \frac{f(S, t)}{\bar{F}(t)} \\ &= \xi(S, t)(1 + \varepsilon(t))\end{aligned}$$

where  $\varepsilon(t) = \frac{f(S, t) - \bar{F}(t)}{\bar{F}(t)}$ .



# Why do GAs work? Schema Theorem

$$\xi(S, t+1) = \xi(S, t)(1 + \varepsilon(t))$$

$$= \underbrace{\xi(S, t-1)(1 + \varepsilon(t-1))}_{\xi(S, t)}(1 + \varepsilon(t))$$

$$= \underbrace{\xi(S, t-2)}_{\xi(S, t-1)}(1 + \varepsilon(t-2))(1 + \varepsilon(t-1))(1 + \varepsilon(t))$$

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=  $\xi(S, 1)(1 + \varepsilon(1))(1 + \varepsilon(2)) \dots$

- $\varepsilon(t) > 0$  for most of  $t$ :  $\xi(S, t+1)$  is increasing
- $\varepsilon(t) < 0$  for most of  $t$ :  $\xi(S, t+1)$  is decreasing

**Implication:** Above average schemata receive increasing number of strings in the next generation; however, below average schemata will die out as  $t$  increases.

# Why do GAs work? Schema Theorem

## Recombination - Crossover

Probability of destruction of a schema  $S$ :  $p_d(S) = \frac{\delta(S)}{N_{bits}-1}$

Probability of schema  $S$ 's survival:  $p_s(S) = 1 - \frac{\delta(S)}{N_{bits}-1}$

### Example

A string  $v$

$S_1 = 110$

$\vdots$

$S_a = ***111***$

$\vdots$

$S_b = 11*****10$

$\vdots$

$S_{2^{N_{bits}}} = *****$

$$p_d(S_a) = \frac{6}{31}$$

$$p_d(S_b) = \frac{9}{31} = 1, p_s(S_b) = 0$$

$$p_d(S_{2^{N_{bits}}}) = \frac{0}{31} = 0, p_s(S_{2^{N_{bits}}}) = 1$$

# Why do GAs work? Schema Theorem

$$v'_1 = 1101110010$$

$$v'_2 = 0100000011$$

Example 1: After crossover

$$o_1^c = 1101$$

$$o_2^c = 010$$

$S_a$  survives but not  $S_b$ .

Example 2: After crossover

$$o_1^c = 110|0000011$$

$$o_2^c = 010|1110010$$

$S_a$  survives but not  $S_b$ .

Example 3: After crossover

$$o_1^c = 11011|00011$$

$$o_2^c = 01000|10010$$

Both  $S_a$  and  $S_b$  cannot survive.

# Why do GAs work? Schema Theorem

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Modification of  $p_s(S)$  considering that, e.g., the schema of  $v'_1$  and  $v'_2$  is the same

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**Schema growth equation** with the consideration

$$\xi(S, t+1) \geq \xi(S, t) \frac{f(S, t)}{\bar{F}(t)}$$

bits —

# Why do GAs work? Schema Theorem

**Mutation:** Uniform mutation - each bit will be mutated if a random number  $r < p_m$ , where  $p_m \in [0, 1]$  is the probability of mutation

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Probability of a schema  $S$  survival (no mutation tak

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$$p_s(S) = (1 - p$$

# Why do GAs work? Schema Theorem

**Schema growth equation** with the consideration of crossover and mutation:

$$\xi(S, t+1) \geq \xi(S, t) \frac{f(S, t)}{\bar{F}(t)} \left(1 - \frac{\delta(S)}{N_{bits} - 1}\right) (1 - p_m)^{o(S)}$$

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Schema 1

“Short, low-order, above-average schemata receive  
in subsequent generations of a genetic algorithm.”

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